Dissecting molecular regulatory mechanisms underlying noncoding susceptibility SNPs associated with 19 autoimmune diseases using multi-omics integrative analysis

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14 Abstract

The genome-wide association studies (GWAS) have identified hundreds of 15 susceptibility loci associated with autoimmune diseases. However, over 90% of risk 16 variants are located in the noncoding regions, leading to great challenges in 17 deciphering the underlying causal functional variants/genes and biological 18 mechanisms. Previous studies focused on developing new scoring method to 19 prioritize functional/disease-relevant variants. However, they principally 20 incorporated annotation data across all cells/tissues while omitted the cell-specific or 21 context-specific regulation. Moreover, limited analyses were performed to dissect the 22 detailed molecular regulatory circuits linking functional GWAS variants to disease 23 etiology. Here we devised a new analysis frame that incorporate hundreds of immune 24 25 cell-specific multi-omics data to prioritize functional noncoding susceptibility SNPs with gene targets and further dissect their downstream molecular mechanisms and 26 clinical applications for 19 autoimmune diseases. Most prioritized SNPs have genetic 27 associations with transcription factors (TFs) binding, histone modification or 28 chromatin accessibility, indicating their allelic regulatory roles on target genes. Their 29 30 target genes were significantly enriched in immunologically related pathways and other immunologically related functions. We also detected long-range regulation on 31 90.7% of target genes including 132 ones exclusively regulated by distal SNPs (eg, 32 CD28, IL2RA), which involves several potential key TFs (eg, CTCF), suggesting the 33 important roles of long-range chromatin interaction in autoimmune diseases. 34 Moreover, we identified hundreds of known or predicted druggable genes, and 35 predicted some new potential drug targets for several autoimmune diseases, including 36 two genes (NFKB1, SH2B3) with known drug indications on other diseases, 37 highlighting their potential drug repurposing opportunities. In summary, our analyses 38 may provide unique resource for future functional follow-up and drug application on 39 autoimmune diseases, which are freely available at http://fngwas.online/. 40

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43 Author Summary

Autoimmune diseases are groups of complex immune system disorders with high 44 prevalence rates and high heritabilities. Previous studies have unraveled thousands 45 of SNPs associated with different autoimmune diseases. However, it remains largely 46 unknown on the molecular mechanisms underlying these genetic associations. 47 Striking, over 90% of risk SNPs are located in the noncoding region. By leveraging 48 49 multiple immune cell-specific multi-omics data across genomic, epigenetic, transcriptomic and 3D chromatin interaction information, we systematically analyzed 50 the functional variants/genes and biological mechanisms underlying genetic 51 association on 19 autoimmune diseases. We found that most functional SNPs may 52 affect target gene expression through altering transcription factors (TFs) binding, 53 histone modification or chromatin accessibility. Most target genes had known 54 immunological functions. We detected prevailing long-range chromatin interaction 55 linking distal functional SNPs to target genes. We also identified many known drug 56 57 targets and predicted some new drug target genes for several autoimmune diseases, suggesting their potential clinical applications. All analysis results and tools are 58 available online, which may provide unique resource for future functional follow-up 59 and drug application. Our study may help reduce the gap between traditional genetic 60 findings and biological mechanistically exploration of disease etiologies as well as 61 clinical drug development. 62

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64 Keyword

Autoimmune diseases; GWAS; Noncoding; Chromatin interaction; Molecular
mechanisms; Drug repurposing

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68 Introduction

Autoimmune diseases are groups of complex immune system disorders with high
prevalence rates worldwide (4.5%) [1]. High heritabilities were observed on various

autoimmune diseases (~60%-90%) [2]. To date, genome-wide association studies 71 (GWASs) have unraveled hundreds of susceptible loci associated with autoimmune 72 diseases [3, 4], suggesting many functional genes involved in some key 73 immunological pathways (eg. MHC gene clusters in antigen presentation, TYK2 in 74 cytokine signals) [5]. However, the true functional variants and target genes for the 75 most of GWASs variants remain largely unknown [5], which might be mainly limited 76 by two challenges. Firstly, the detected variants may be in linkage disequilibrium (LD) 77 with causal functional SNPs without genotyping. Secondly, over 90% of GWASs 78 variants are located in the uncultivated noncoding regions, complicating their 79 functional interpretation. 80

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In the past few years, many studies have integrated functional epigenetic data to 82 predict function of noncoding SNPs. Many of these methods such as CADD [6], 83 DeepSEA [7], GWAVA [8], FATHMM-MKL [9], ReMM [10] and FIRE [11], adopted 84 machine learning algorithms to develop classifiers through integrating various 85 86 annotations and labelled training data to distinguish potential functional/nonfunctional SNPs. However, the prior labelled training data may be inaccurate and 87 impractical due to the current knowledge limitation in functional roles underlying 88 noncoding SNPs. Some other methods like RegulomeDB [12], 3DSNP [13], 89 GWAS4D [14], IW-Scoring [15], Eigen [16], and FunSeq2 [17] either directly 90 combined various epigenetic/regulatory features to rank SNP functionality or adopted 91 a weighted scoring scheme by considering the relative importance of each feature to 92 assign SNP functionality scores. However, these approaches principally incorporated 93 epigenetic or transcriptional annotation across all cells or tissues, while omitting the 94 cell-specific or context-specific regulation. Besides, they mainly aimed to prioritize 95 potential functional variants rather than dissect the downstream regulatory circuits 96 linking functional variants to disease etiology. Autoimmune diseases associated 97 variants are significantly enriched in blood cell-specific enhancers [18], implying that 98 99 the integration of cell-specific functional data are required for dissecting molecular regulatory mechanisms underlying noncoding variants associated with autoimmune 100

101 diseases.

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The incorporation of cell-specific multi-omics data has remarkably accelerated the 103 decryption of functional mechanisms underlying noncoding GWAS variants [19]. For 104 example, we recently identified a functional SNP associated with two autoimmune 105 diseases exerted allele-specific enhancer regulation on IRF5 expression through long-106 rang loop formation [20]. Nevertheless, these studies primarily focused on one 107 GWAS susceptibility loci on one disease, and only limited functional causal variants 108 predisposing to autoimmune diseases have been validated [20]. The autoimmune 109 diseases share substantial common susceptibility variants and immunopathology [21]. 110 It is necessary and important to decipher the functions of GWAS noncoding variants 111 systematically, which is helpful to accelerate the translation from GWASs findings 112 into useful biological and clinical insights into autoimmune diseases. 113

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To address these issues, we devised a new analysis frame to prioritize potential 115 116 functional noncoding SNPs on 19 autoimmune diseases and further predicted their local and distal regulatory target genes using epigenetic, transcriptional and 3D 117 chromatin interaction data across hundreds of blood immune cell types. Our analysis 118 contains a new functional scoring method to prioritize functional autoimmune SNPs. 119 We evaluated the performance of our functional scoring method by comparing it with 120 other representative methods. We next explored potential molecular mechanisms 121 underlying prioritized SNPs and analyzed the immunologically related function as 122 well as potential clinical drug applications for predicted target genes. We also 123 analyzed the roles of long-range chromatin interactions on autoimmune SNPs as well 124 as potential key regulatory transcription factors (TFs). Finally, we developed an open 125 web resource (http://fnGWAS.online/) and local analytical pipeline 126 (https://github.com/xjtugenetics/fnGWAS). 127

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129 **Results**

130 Prioritizing potential noncoding functional autoimmune SNPs

We collected 18,857 autoimmune noncoding tag SNPs predisposing to 19 distinct 131 autoimmune diseases ($P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$) from multiple resources (Table S1). LD analysis 132 retained 51,594 noncoding tags and LD expanded ($r^2 > 0.8$) SNPs in 333 genome-133 wide significant loci (autoimmune positive SNPs). We next collected 26,922,878 134 background SNPs in all 333 loci, and collected 47,131,427 negative SNPs beyond 135 these loci. To explore potential key epigenetic regulatory features for autoimmune 136 diseases, we compared 606 epigenetic data annotation across 47 blood immune cell 137 types between all autoimmune positive SNPs and background SNPs. Previous studies 138 had suggested that the autoimmune causal SNPs are significantly enriched in blood-139 cell specific enhancer marks [18]. Consistently, we found that autoimmune positive 140 SNPs are significantly higher enriched for 347 active epigenetic features (FC > 1, P141 < 0.05/606) across 40 blood immune cell types within four epigenetic categories, 142 including 9 DHSs, 75 active histone modifications (H3K4me1, H3K4me2, H3K4me3, 143 H3k27ac and H3K9ac), 167 active genomic segmentations (HMM-15, marked as 144 145 active transcription or enhancer) and 96 TFBS (Figure 1a and Table S2). To evaluate the functionality of all positive SNPs, we devised a new epigenetic functional scoring 146 approach (flowchart shown in Figure S1) using fold enrichment of all 347 significant 147 epigenetic features across four epigenetic categories as weight. By comparing 148 functional score of each positive SNPs with scoring distribution of negative SNPs, 149 we prioritized 15,314 SNPs associated with 19 autoimmune diseases with 150 functionality support on at least one epigenetic category (Figure 1b-c and Table S3). 151 152

153 Integrative prediction of potential causal target genes on prioritized SNPs

To explore potential regulatory targets for 15,314 prioritized SNPs, we integrated both cis-QTL association, 3D chromatin interaction and colocalization analysis from over 30 blood cell types (Table S4). We predicted 367 high-confident target genes regulated by 4,272 prioritized functional SNPs (Table S5 and S6), which had both cis-QTL, chromatin interaction and colocalization evidence (PP4 > 0.8).

Functional SNPs are significantly enriched in allele-specific motif and local molecular QTLs

The functional SNPs might perturb allelic enhancer activities through mediating 162 several intermediate molecular-level traits, such as bQTL [22], hQTL [23], dsQTL 163 [24] or caQTL [25] (Figure 2a). To explore potential allelic regulatory mechanisms 164 linking 4,272 prioritized autoimmune SNPs to predicted gene targets, we firstly 165 performed motif analysis, and detected allele-specific binding motif on 2,603 SNPs 166 (Figure 2a). We further analyzed multiple molecular QTL association (Table S7) for 167 autoimmune SNPs, and identified 592 SNPs associated with several intermediate-168 level molecular traits (Table S8), including 143 bOTL SNPs preferentially binding to 169 special allele on 5 TFs (JunD, NF-kB, PU.1, Pou2f1, Stat1) in LCLs, 303 caQTL or 170 dsQTL SNPs affecting chromatin accessibility in either naive or stimulus-specific 171 macrophages (n = 157) or CD4+ T cells (n = 24) or LCLs (n = 182), as well as 230 172 hQTL SNPs affecting chromatin modification on either H3K4me1 (n = 63), 173 H3K4me3 (n = 83) or H3K27ac (n = 127) in LCLs (Figure 2a). Further analysis 174 175 revealed significant enrichment for all molecular QTL association (bQTL, dsQTL, caQTL and hQTL) on prioritized functional SNPs compared with all autoimmune 176 SNPs (FC = $1.9 \sim 7.4$, P < 0.05, Figure 2b-e), implying their extensive regulatory 177 roles. We also detected weak while significant enrichment for allele-specific binding 178 motif on prioritized functional SNPs in comparison with all autoimmune SNPs (FC 179 = 1.05, $P = 1.59 \times 10^{-14}$, Figure not shown), further supporting their important 180 regulatory roles. Together, these analyses suggested potential allelic regulatory 181 mechanisms underlying 66.0% of prioritized autoimmune functional SNPs. 182

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184 Epigenetic functional scoring improves prioritizing functional autoimmune 185 SNPs compared with other methods

To further assess the performance of our epigenetic functional scoring, we compared the functional support on multiple immune-cell associated regulatory evidence between SNPs prioritized by our method and other five functional scoring methods [11-15]. Table S15 summarized the main characteristics between our method and other scoring methods (see discussion for comparison in detail). To ensure fair comparison of methods performance, we extracted top-ranked SNPs under different functionality support by our method with corresponding equal or approximately equal counts of top-ranked SNPs from other methods, which resulted in comparison with two methods under all functionality support and another three methods under selected functionality supports (Figure 3a).

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197 We firstly compared experimentally validated regulatory SNPs in mononuclear cells [26], and detected substantially more validated SNPs by our method compared with 198 either FIRE, GWAS4D or IW-Scoring (Figure 3b). We also detected much more 199 validated SNPs compared with 3DSNP under the first two functionality support and 200 comparable validated SNPs compared with RegulomeDB (Figure 3b). Consistent 201 results were found on experimentally validated regulatory SNPs in two no-immune 202 cell types (K562, HepG2) [27], in which our method had substantially more validated 203 SNPs compared with all four methods except for 3DSNP (Figure S2a-b). In 204 205 comparison with 3DSNP, we identified comparable experimentally validated SNPs in two no-immune cell types (Figure S2a-b) while substantially more validated ones 206 in the mononuclear cell (Figure 3b), implying the potential outperformance of our 207 method in prioritizing immune cell specific regulatory SNPs. We next compared 208 209 potential regulatory SNPs under multiple immune-related functional evidence (potential regulatory SNPs associated with gene expression, SNPs with molecular 210 association, causal SNPs identified by PICS approach [18], eRNA SNPs from IBD 211 patients [28]). We found that our prioritized SNPs was significantly higher enriched 212 213 for nearly all functional evidence compared with all five methods (Fisher's exact test, FC > 1, P < 0.05, Figure 3c-f). We also detected much higher percentage of molecular 214 QTL SNPs or eRNA SNPs for our prioritized SNPs under the highest functionality 215 support compared with either IW-Scoring (FC = 1.2, P = 0.08, Figure 3d) or 3DSNP 216 (FC = 1.3, P = 0.06, Figure 3f) although not significant. Collectively, these analyses 217 support the outperformance in prioritizing functional autoimmune SNPs by our 218 epigenetic functional scoring method over other mentioned comparable methods. 219

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221 Target genes are significantly enriched in immunologically related functions

To evaluate the immunologically related functions on predicted target genes on 4,272 222 prioritized SNPs, we collected multiple immune-relevant functional datasets. We 223 identified 181/367 highly-supported potential immunological genes (Figure 4a and 224 Table S9), including 171 genes participated in immunologically related pathways, 25 225 genes whose knockdown in mouse could display abnormal immune system 226 227 phenotypes from IMPC portal [29], as well as 23 genes associated with Mendelian disorders with immunology-related clinical symptoms from the OMIM database. We 228 further analyzed other suggestive immune-relevant functions for predicted target 229 genes, and detected functional support for nearly all (365/367) target genes (Figure 230 4a and Table S9), including 358 genes expressed on 20 blood immune cell types 231 (RPKM > 1), 39 genes with tissue-specifically expression on blood as determined by 232 TSEA approach (pSI < 0.01) [30], 191 immune system diseases associated genes 233 collected from the DisGeNET database [31], as well as 201 genes showed causal 234 235 relationship with autoimmune diseases as implemented the SMR analysis (FDR < 0.05, $P_{\text{HEIDI}} > 0.05$, Table S10) [32]. Collectively, these data suggested potential 236 immunological function for most gene targets, which may suggest new mechanistic 237 insights into autoimmune disease etiologies. 238

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To further verify the immunological roles for predicted target genes, we performed 240 functional enrichment analysis. We found that the predicted target genes are 241 significantly enriched in multiple immunologically related pathways (Figure 4b). We 242 also detected significant enrichment for other immunologically related genes from 243 different functional datasets (IMPC, OMIM, DisGeNET) and SMR causal genes and 244 expressed genes on blood cell types on predicted target genes (Fisher's exact test, FC: 245 $1.8 \sim 11.1$, P: $4.74 \times 10^{-6} \sim 6.96 \times 10^{-151}$, Figure 4c). We further compared tissue-246 specific expression from TSEA [30] on 25 distinct cell types, and detected 247 exclusively significant higher enrichment for blood tissue (Fisher's exact test, FC = 248 1.4, P = 0.01, Figure 4d) on predicted target genes, which also showed the largest 249

- 250 number of tissue-specifically expressed genes (Figure 4d). Altogether, these analyses
- revealed extensive enrichment of immunologically related functions for target genes,
- supporting the credibility of our target gene prediction.
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254 Prevailing long-range regulation linking functional autoimmune SNPs to distal

255 target genes

Among 367 prioritized target genes, we detected larger amount of distal genes (n = 256 257 333, regulated by distal functional SNPs) compared with local genes (n = 235, regulated by functional SNPs located within target gene promoter), including 132 258 distal genes exclusively regulated by distal functional SNPs (Figure 5a). These 259 exclusive distal genes included many known immunologic genes, such as CD37, 260 CD28, IL7, IL12RB1 or IL2RA, indicating the important roles of long-range 261 regulation on autoimmune diseases. We further analyzed all 7,221 SNP-gene 262 regulatory pairs, and detected predominantly distal pairs (87.87%) compared with 263 local ones (Figure 5b). Interesting, the distal SNPs residing within local genes are 264 265 more likely to regulate the distal target genes compared with their directly located genes (64.8% vs 17.89%, Figure 5b). We also analyzed the distance between all distal 266 regulatory pairs, and found that the vast amount of distal SNP-gene regulatory pairs 267 (66.5%) are located more than 50 kb away (mean distance: 105.4 kb, Figure 5c), 268 further underscoring the important roles of chromatin looping on autoimmune 269 diseases. 270

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The prevailing long-range regulation may indicate that, for many functional 272 273 noncoding autoimmune SNPs, their located or directly mapped genes might not be the direct regulatory target genes. Among 3,139 prioritized functional SNPs within 274 gene region (intergenic SNPs excluded), we found that 67.1% of SNPs exclusively 275 regulated 239 distal effect genes instead of directly located local genes. We show one 276 such example in Figure 5d-f, in which multidimensional evidence (cis-QTLs, 3D 277 chromatin interactions and colocalization) supported that multiple functional SNPs 278 within TNPO3 or in the intergenic region near TNPO3 could regulate distal IRF5 279

expression through long-range chromatin interactions. The *IRF5* was also locally regulated by several functional SNPs within *IRF5* promoter region (Figure 5d-f). The immunological roles of *TNPO3* is largely unknown. In contrast, *IRF5* is a well-known immunological gene with crucial roles in autoimmune etiology [33], thus providing plausible mechanistic insights linking GWAS risk SNPs at *IRF5-TNPO3* locus to autoimmune pathogenies [20].

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287 Distal autoimmune genetic regulatory network may be mediated by several key 288 TFs

To identify potential functional TFs mediating genetic regulation for autoimmune 289 diseases, we compared allele-specific motif occupying between 4,272 functional 290 SNPs and all autoimmune SNPs. We identified 29/366 nominally significant 291 (Fisher's exact test, P < 0.05) motif TFs with higher enrichment for functional SNPs 292 (Figure 5a and Table S11). To explore potential regulatory targets on prioritized TFs, 293 we considered three possible TF-gene regulatory models (Figure 6b), including (1) 294 295 local model: TFs directly bind to target gene promoter to mediate gene expression, (2) distal model: TFs bind to distal enhancers to regulate target gene expression via 296 long-range chromatin interactions, and (3) indirect model: the TFs regulate target 297 gene expression through mediating other regulatory TFs in trans manner. We found 298 that most of our predicted target genes (72.8%, 267/367) could be regulated by these 299 29 TFs (Figure 6b-c and Table S11), with predominant distal model (n = 218)300 compared with either local model (n = 102) or indirect model (n = 112). Moreover, 301 CTCF had the most regulatory target genes (Table S11), consistent with its known 302 303 role in facilitating long-range chromatin looping [34]. Further analysis revealed that all 29 TFs had more distal regulatory target genes compared with local genes (Figure 304 6d), and 25 of them involved potential immunological functions (Figure 6e), 305 implying their broad roles in distal genetic regulation on autoimmune diseases. We 306 further analyzed the sharing of gene targets between different TFs, and detected 22 307 TFs sharing all 267/267 target genes with all 7 other rest TFs (Figure 6f), indicating 308 their potential central regulatory roles. Together, these analyses suggested several 309

possible key regulatory TFs mediating distal genetic regulatory networks onautoimmune diseases.

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313 Analyzing potential clinical applications on target genes

To explore potential clinical implications on predicted target genes, we firstly 314 investigated all approved or experimental drug targets with known indications. We 315 identified 80 genes targeted by drugs with known clinical indications on either 316 autoimmune diseases (n = 41) or other immunologically related diseases (eg, allergies, 317 infections or inflammations, n = 45) or other diseases (n = 57) (Figure 7a-b, Table 318 S12), implying the extensive therapeutic implications on predicted target genes. The 319 identified drug target genes showed pervasive shared drug indications, with 62.2 % 320 of genes targeted for other immunologically related diseases and 42.1 % of genes 321 targeted for other diseases also shared targeted indications for autoimmune diseases 322 (Figure 7b and Table S12), indicating potential pleiotropic therapeutic-effect among 323 drug targets. Except for known drug target genes, we also identified 190 potential 324 325 druggable genes, including 118 ones without known drug target indications (Figure 7a and Table S13). In comparison with all genome genes, our predicted target genes 326 are significantly more enriched in both known drug target genes (Fisher's exact test, 327 FC = 4.3, $P = 2.93 \times 10^{-28}$) and predicted druggable genes (Fisher's exact test, FC = 328 3.5, $P = 6.94 \times 10^{-61}$) (Figure 7c), further supporting the potential important clinical 329 implications on them. 330

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Consistent with the observed pleiotropic indications among drug target genes (Figure 332 7b), we found extensive disease association sharing for both autoimmune drug target 333 genes and other drug target or druggable genes (Figure S3a-b), which may suggest 334 new potential opportunities for drug repurposing on autoimmune diseases from other 335 non-autoimmune drug target or druggable genes. To explore the functional relevance 336 between known autoimmune-drug genes and other genes, we firstly analyzed their 337 shared biological pathways. We found that the vast majority (36/41) of autoimmune-338 drug genes shared the same immunologically related pathways with 68.9 % (131/190) 339

of drug target or druggable genes (Figure S3c), implying their intimately functional 340 connectivity. We further performed protein-protein interaction (PPI) analysis, and 341 detected strong PPI (interaction score > 0.9) between 63.4 % (26/41) of autoimmune-342 drug genes and 31 other known drug target or druggable genes (Figure 7d), indicating 343 the pervasive regulatory relevance between known autoimmune-drug target and other 344 genes. This was further supported by enrichment analysis, in which 41 autoimmune-345 drug genes showed significantly higher PPI with either predicted druggable genes 346 $(FC = 2.0, P = 1.20 \times 10^{-71})$ or known drug target genes $(FC = 3.1, P = 2.44 \times 10^{-108})$ 347 compared with whole genome genes (Fisher's exact test, Figure 7e). Besides, when 348 restricted PPI targets of autoimmune-drug genes to our predicted gene targets, we 349 found significantly higher PPI on our predicted target genes compared with either all 350 predicted druggable genes (FC = 2.2, $P = 9.40 \times 10^{-9}$) or all known drug target genes 351 (FC = 2.1, $P = 1.96 \times 10^{-6}$) (Fisher's exact test, Figure 7e). Based on these analyses 352 above, it is reasonable to assume that incorporating both GWAS genetic regulation 353 and protein interaction network could help prioritize new potential drug target genes 354 355 for autoimmune diseases. We prioritized 25 new candidate drug target genes for seven autoimmune diseases (Figure 7f-h and S5, Table S14), which showed both strong PPI 356 with known drug target genes and genetic regulation associated with the same 357 autoimmune disease. Among 25 prioritized genes, we found 14 genes with known 358 indications on other autoimmune diseases as well as 2 genes (NFKB1, SH2B3) with 359 indications on other diseases (Figure 7f-h and S4). The rest 9 genes had no indications 360 while with druggable evidence, including 4 genes (DAG1, IL27, STX4, SH2B1) 361 predicted targeted for ulcerative colitis and 3 genes (IL27, IFNLR1, PPP5C) 362 predicted targeted for ankylosing spondylitis as well as 6 genes (IFNLR1, SOCS1, 363 IL27, STAT2, IL18R1, SH2B1) predicted targeted for psoriasis (Figure 7f-h). Together, 364 our analysis not only prioritized some new promising drug targets for future drug 365 exploration, but also suggested some known drug targets (NFKB1, SH2B3) that could 366 be exploited for future drug repurposing on autoimmune diseases. 367

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369 **Open web application and local pipeline**

To facilitate quick search for interested SNP(s) or gene(s) prioritized by our 370 integrative analysis, we developed an open website (http://fngwas.online/) collecting 371 comprehensive resources including functional scores on all noncoding autoimmune 372 SNPs, regulatory target genes on prioritized functional SNPs, immunologically 373 related functions for predicted target genes, clinical drug applications for target genes 374 as well as regulatory mechanisms underlying functional SNPs. We also provided 375 precomputed functional analysis results across whole genome SNPs/genes for bulk 376 377 downloading (http://fngwas.online/download.php), which included functional scores and predicted allelic regulatory mechanisms underlying all autosomal noncoding 378 SNPs as well as multiple disease-relevant function and drug target analysis for all 379 genome genes. To further expand the potential application of our analytical frame on 380 other complex diseases/traits, we also developed packaged local pipeline named 381 fnGWAS (dissecting the functionality of noncoding GWAS SNPs, workflow shown 382 in Figure S5), which could be run on any local Linux server with user-definable 383 annotation data and parameters (https://github.com/xjtugenetics/fnGWAS). 384

385

386 **Discussion**

The majority of autoimmune susceptibility SNPs are located in the noncoding region. 387 It remains challenging to pinpoint the causal SNPs and functional genes to decipher 388 the underlying biological mechanisms. In this study, we systematically evaluated the 389 molecular mechanisms underlying noncoding susceptibility SNPs associated with 19 390 autoimmune diseases, through combining functional SNPs prioritizing, target gene 391 prediction, allelic regulatory mechanisms analysis, gene function annotation as well 392 393 as drug application exploration. We found predominant long-range chromatin interaction linking functional SNPs to distal target genes, which may be mediated by 394 several key TFs including CTCF. Particularly, we detected extensive regulatory roles 395 underlying prioritized functional SNPs, as well as broad immunological functions 396 and clinical drug applications on predicted target genes. We also developed open 397 website and analytical pipeline. We hope that our systematic analyses may be helpful 398

for future experimental follow-up as well as clinical exploitation of drug repurposingon autoimmune diseases.

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We have previously integrated epigenetic features for known disease-associated 402 SNPs to predict novel susceptibility loci for complex diseases [35-38]. In this study, 403 we developed a new improved epigenetic functional scoring method to prioritize 404 functional autoimmune SNPs through incorporating hundreds of immune cell-405 406 specific active epigenetic information. Some other comparable scoring methods are also developed, such as 3DSNP [13], FIRE [11], GWAS4D [14], IW-Scoring [15] or 407 RegulomeDB [12]. Compared with these approaches, one distinct feature of our 408 method was the integrating of immune cell-specific epigenetic information (Table 409 S15), which might provide better evaluation for disease-specific functional 410 autoimmune SNPs. Another feature of our analysis frame is the comprehensive 411 functional evaluation on multiple regulatory levels spanning SNP functional scoring, 412 gene target prediction, gene function analysis and gene clinical application analysis, 413 414 as well as SNP regulatory mechanisms analysis (Table S15). Indeed, the integration of cell-specific epigenetic annotation has been proved highly successful for 415 prioritizing functional GWAS SNPs validated by experimental assays in many recent 416 studies [39, 40]. Our analysis revealed that the top-ranked autoimmune SNPs 417 prioritized by our method are significantly higher enriched in multiple blood immune 418 cell associated regulatory elements compared with other methods, implying the 419 outperformance of our method. We anticipated that future incorporation of more other 420 cell-specific or context-specific epigenetic information could help identify functional 421 422 SNPs associated with other complex diseases/traits.

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Recent studies have shown that considerable noncoding GWAS SNPs could regulate target genes through long-range loop formation [41-43], providing unprecedented new mechanical insights underlying GWAS disease association. Consistently, our analysis revealed prevailing long-range regulation linking functional autoimmune SNPs to distal target genes, suggesting the important roles of chromatin interactions

for autoimmune diseases. Our analysis also suggested that many functional SNPs 429 within local gene could regulate distal target gene expression, including vast amounts 430 of functional SNPs within local gene promoter. One underlying mechanism 431 hypothesis was that gene promoter could also act as enhancer which was termed 432 Epromoter to regulate distal gene expression [44], which was consistent with our 433 recent findings that one functional autoimmune risk SNP within TNPO3 promoter 434 could independently regulate distal IRF5 expression via long-range loop formation 435 436 [20]. We also identified several potential key regulatory TFs with significant enrichment in functional autoimmune SNPs, including CTCF. CTCF is well-known 437 for its regulatory roles for mediating enhancer-promoter interaction in chromatin loop 438 formation [34], and played essential roles in late B-cell differentiation [45]. In line 439 with the prevailing long-range genetic regulation detected for autoimmune diseases, 440 we found predominant distal regulatory genes compared with local ones for all 441 enriched TFs, indicating their potential roles in mediating distal genetic regulatory 442 network for autoimmune diseases. Future functional assays are needed to decipher 443 444 their precise regulatory mechanisms.

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The past fruitful GWAS findings have remarkably accelerated the translation of new 446 drug clinical utilities [4]. The drug targets with human genetic evidence of disease 447 association are twice as likely to lead to approved drugs [46]. Consistently, we found 448 that our predicted autoimmune target genes are significantly more enriched in both 449 known drug target genes and druggable genes compared with whole genome genes, 450 supporting the potential important clinical implications on disease effecter genes. A 451 previous GWAS study has incorporated PPI with 98 annotated RA risk genes to 452 predict new drug targets, and highlighted CDK6 and CDK4 as promising candidates 453 [47]. The incorporation of functional genomic and immune-related annotations as 454 well as PPI has been demonstrated successfully in prioritizing potential drug target 455 on immune-related traits [48]. Consistently, our study integrated both genetic 456 association and PPI, and prioritized 25 candidate drug target genes on 7 autoimmune 457 diseases, including many genes (16/25) with known indications on autoimmune 458

diseases or other diseases. The drug repurposing strategies have shed light on many 459 new promising therapeutic opportunities for autoimmune diseases, such as the 460 dopaminergic drug for multiple sclerosis [49] or Fibrate for treating for primary 461 biliary cirrhosis [50]. Our results may provide important clues for future clinical drug 462 repurposing on autoimmune diseases. For example, we predicted IL2RA to be a 463 potential new drug target for ankylosing spondylitis. IL2RA is targeted by several 464 known drugs (eg. HuMax-TAC) with indications on autoimmune diabetes and has 465 known roles in the pathogenesis of autoimmunity [5]. Besides, we found that IL2RA 466 was regulated by several functional SNPs associated with ankylosing spondylitis. 467 Collectively, these evidence suggest the potential drug repurposing opportunity of 468 IL2RA on ankylosing spondylitis. 469

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In conclusion, we performed comprehensive functional genetic analysis for 19 autoimmune diseases. We hope that our unique resource may help accelerate the translation from GWASs findings into biologically and clinically useful insights underlying autoimmune diseases pathogenies.

475

476 Materials and Methods

477 Autoimmune SNPs collection

We collected SNPs associated with 19 autoimmune diseases [alopecia areata (AA), 478 ankylosing spondylitis (AS), autoimmune thyroid disease (ATD), celiac disease 479 (CEL), Crohn's disease (CRO), IgE and allergic sensitization (IGE), inflammatory 480 bowel disease (IBD), juvenile idiopathic arthritis (JIA), multiple sclerosis (MS), 481 narcolepsy (NAR), primary biliary cirrhosis (PBC), primary sclerosing cholangitis 482 (PSC), psoriasis (PSO), rheumatoid arthritis (RA), systemic lupus erythematosus 483 (SLE), systemic scleroderma (SSc), type1 diabetes (T1D), ulcerative colitis (UC), 484 and vitiligo (VIT)] from multiple resources, including the GWAS Catalog [3], the 485 ImmunoBase (https://www.immunobase.org/) and other public studies [51, 52]. All 486 databases were visited in March 2019 and summarized in Table S1. For SNPs 487 achieved genome-wide significance reported in European ancestry ($P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$), any 488

coding or splicing SNPs annotated by ANNOVAR [53] using GENCODE v19
reference data were removed. We further excluded SNPs within the major
histocompatibility complex locus (MHC,
<u>https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/grc/human/regions/MHC?asm=GRCh37.p13</u>) due to
the complex LD patterns. The filtered SNPs were selected as autoimmune tag SNPs.

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495 LD analysis, positive, background and negative SNPs definition

496 LD analysis for autoimmune tag SNPs was conducted using PLINK v1.90 [54] in European samples from 1000 genome v3 genotype data [55], with maximum distance 497 for r^2 calculation set as 1M. Genome-wide significant loci were defined as merged 498 unique regions surrounding 1M of any filtered noncoding tag SNPs with overlapping 499 MHC region truncated. We extracted noncoding tags and LD expanded ($r^2 > 0.8$) 500 SNPs within genome-wide significant loci as positive SNPs and all noncoding SNPs 501 in these loci as background SNPs. We collected 41,377 susceptible SNPs with ID 502 record in the 1000 genome v3 genotype data [55] from GWAS Catalog (visited in 503 504 March 2019). All other noncoding SNPs beyond genome-wide significant loci and beyond MHC region with low LD ($r^2 < 0.1$) with the GWAS catalog susceptible SNPs 505 were selected as negative SNPs. 506

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508 Epigenetic functional scoring

Epigenetic features selection. We collected 606 epigenetic data (called peak region) 509 on 47 blood cell types from Roadmap [56] and ENCODE Project [57]. Four different 510 epigenetic categories of data were incorporated for SNP annotation, including 15 511 512 chromatin states (HMM-15), histone modification, DNase I hypersensitive sites (DHS) and transcription factor binding sites (TFBS). One epigenetic feature 513 represents one epigenetic annotation in one cell type (eg, H3K4me1 in GM12878). 514 SNPs were labeled as annotated or unannotated on each epigenetic feature by 515 analyzing their overlapping with selected feature using bedtools v2.25.0 [58]. We 516 performed enrichment analysis for each epigenetic feature by comparing counts of 517 annotated positive SNPs and background SNPs using chi-square test. All epigenetic 518

SNPs

features with significantly higher enrichment for positive SNPs compared with 519 background SNPs (Fold enrichment > 1, Bonferroni adjusted P < 0.05) were selected 520

for the following epigenetic scoring. The fold enrichment (FC) is defined as: 521

522
$$FC = \frac{\text{annotated positive SNPs} \times \text{total background SNPs}}{\text{annotated background SNPs} \times \text{total positive SNPs}}$$

523

Functional scoring. Based on our previous epigenetic enrichment approach [37, 38], 524 we developed a new cell-specific epigenetic weighted scoring method to evaluate the 525 functionality for all noncoding autoimmune positive SNPs (flowchart shown in 526 Figure S1). For each epigenetic category (HMM-15, histone modification, DHS, 527 TFBS), we adopted an accumulative quantitative score system using fold enrichment 528 of selected significant features within each category as weight, separately, which is 529 defined as follows: 530

531
$$\operatorname{Score} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} FC_{j}B$$

532 Where j denotes particular feature $(1 \le j \le n)$ among each epigenetic category (assuming n total features), B indicates whether the tested positive SNP was 533 annotated (B = 1) or unannotated (B = 0) on feature j. Therefore, we can get four 534 independent functional scores across four different epigenetic categories for each 535 536 tested SNP. For each epigenetic category, we further scored for all negative SNPs to build null distribution, and prioritized any positive SNPs with score higher than the 537 top 5% ranked score value of all negative SNPs as potential functional. Finally, any 538 positive SNPs with functionality support in at least one epigenetic category were 539 determined as potential functional. 540

541

Predicting target genes for prioritized functional SNPs 542

Cis-QTL analysis. We examined the cis-quantitative trait loci (cis-QTLs) association 543 544 between prioritized noncoding SNPs and all nearby genes in 1M region. We collected 12 cis-eQTL and 2 cis-pQTL data over 20 blood immune cell types from 13 different 545 published studies (Table S4). For pQTL data from the INTERVAL study [59], we 546 extracted all cis-pQTL (1M surrounding gene TSS) pairs and transformed the protein 547

ID to gene symbol ID using the UniProt online tools. For any full QTL dataset without multiple testing corrections, we adjusted original *P* using false discovery rate (FDR) method. All significant QTL results with probe/gene level FDR < 5%validated by at leaste two different datasets were retained.

552

Three-dimensional (3D) chromatin interaction analysis. All SNP-gene pairs with 553 cis-QTL associations were divided into either local (SNPs within target gene 554 promoter (1KB surrounding TSS)) or distal (SNPs beyond target gene promoter). We 555 collected chromatin interaction assay (5C, in situ Hi-C, capture Hi-C, HiChIP, ChIA-556 PET) and predicted chromatin interaction data (IM-PET, PreSTIGE, PHM) on 557 multiple blood immune cell types from 11 different studies (Table S4). To validate 558 the long-range regulation between distal SNP-gene pairs, the 3D chromatin 559 interactions between prioritized SNP and gene transcript promoter region 560 (GENCODE v19) were examined using bedtools v2.25.0 [58]. The integration of cis-561 OTLs and 3D chromatin interactions might better identify causal regulatory effect at 562 563 GWAS loci by diminishing the potential accidental overlapping with OTLs for GWAS SNPs [60]. All distal SNP-gene pairs with chromatin interaction evidence 564 from at leaste two different datasets were retained. 565

566

Co-localization analysis. To validate the potential causal genetic regulatory effect for 567 filtered local or distal target genes, we employed two complementary methods [61, 568 62] to assess whether the detected GWAS signal and cis-QTL association shared the 569 same causal variant. For 16 GWAS summary and 7 full QTL datasets available (Table 570 571 S1 and S4), we employed the Coloc [61] method using coloc R package for Colocalization analysis. The Coloc method [61] adopted a Bayesian statistical test using 572 summary-level data to estimate five posterior probabilities: no association with either 573 GWAS or QTL (PP0), association with GWAS while not with QTL (PP1), association 574 with QTL while not with GWAS (PP2), association with GWAS and QTL while with 575 two independent SNPs (PP3), association with both GWAS and QTL with one shared 576 causal SNP (PP4). We defined 100-KB region surrounding each GWAS index SNP 577

 $(P < 5 \times 10^{-8})$ and tested for co-localization with any overlapping OTL genes. For all 578 curated GWAS and QTL datasets (including datasets with no full summary-level data 579 available, Table S1 and S4), we also employed another adapted Coloc method named 580 PICCOLO [62] for Co-localization analysis. The PICCOLO [62] estimates the 581 colocalization of GWAS and QTL PICS (Probabilistic Identification of Causal SNPs) 582 [18] credible set using reported lead SNPs and P-value. The PICS was a fine-mapping 583 algorithm to estimate each SNP's probability of being causal at a given locus [18]. 584 We performed PICCOLO analysis as described using piccolo R package by 585 Tachmazidou et al. [63]. Briefly, we firstly estimated the PICS credible set for each 586 lead GWAS index SNP and each top QTL SNP using pics.download and then 587 performed colocalization analysis using pics.coloc.lite with default parameter. For 588 both Coloc and PICCOLO, any genes with both PP4 greater than 80% and significant 589 QTL association with prioritized SNPs from at least two cis-QTL datasets were 590 considered to support the co-localization. 591

592

Local and distal target gene prediction. We predicted local or distal target gene on prioritized SNPs using different strategies. For local ones, any genes with both cis-QTLs assocaition and colocalization evidence were prioritized to be potential target genes. For distal ones, any genes with multidimensional evidence including cis-QTLs assocaition, 3D chromatin interaction and colocalization were considered to be potential target genes.

599

600 Deciphering allelic regulatory mechanisms underlying prioritized SNPs

Allele-specific motif analysis. We analyzed the allelic effect of prioritized functional SNPs on transcription factor binding motifs using FIMO from MEME Suite toolkit (v4.11.0) [64] with default parameters and TF motifs available from 5 public motif databases, including JASPAR (2018 version) [65], HOCOMOCO (v11) [66], SwissRegulon [67], Transfac and Jolma2013 [68]. To identify potential functional motifs, we focused motif search on TF genes with high expression in at least one of the 20 blood immune cells from Roadmap [56] or DICE [69] (RPKM >1). The allele-

specific binding motifs predicted by at least two different datasets were retained.

609

Molecular OTL analysis. We collected different molecular QTL data in multiple 610 blood cell types from 8 studies (Table S7), including transcription factor binding 611 quantitative trait loci (bQTL) on five immune-relevant TFs (NF-KB, PU.1, Stat1, 612 JunD, and Pou2f1), histone modification quantitative trait loci (hQTL) 613 (H3K4me1/H3K4me3/H3K27ac), DNase-I hypersensitivity quantitative trait loci 614 (dsQTL) and chromatin accessibility quantitative trait loci (caQTL). For all QTL 615 datasets, the tested SNP and molecular peak (TF binding sites or ChIP-Seq peaks) 616 pairs could be divided into either local (SNP located within molecular peak) or distal 617 ones (SNP located beyond molecular peak). We retained significant association 618 results between prioritized functional SNPs and local molecular peaks which passed 619 multiple testing corrections (FDR < 0.1). 620

621

622 Comparison with other functional scoring methods

Curation of top-ranked SNPs. We compared our epigenetic functional scoring with 623 five other functional scoring methods, including 3DSNP [13], FIRE [11], GWAS4D 624 [14], IW-Scoring [15] and RegulomeDB [12]. The IW-Scoring [15] integrated eleven 625 commonly used scoring methods to assign SNP a combined significance level (P-626 value) and outperformed any single method. We therefore did not compare our 627 method with these eleven methods. Functional scores of all autoimmune positive 628 SNPs from these methods were collected from online database in March 2019. We 629 extracted prioritized autoimmune SNPs by our method under four different minimum 630 functionality evidence (≥ 4 , ≥ 3 , ≥ 2 , ≥ 1 , n = 1,791 ~ 15,331), and extracted 631 equivalent or approximately equivalent top-ranked SNPs by other five methods for 632 functional comparison. (1) Since both 3DSNP and FIRE adopted the quantitative 633 scoring system, we selected those top scoring ranked SNPs equal to our prioritized 634 SNPs under different minimum evidence (≥ 4 , ≥ 3 , ≥ 2 , ≥ 1) for functional 635 comparison, respectively. (2) The GWAS4D calculated combined regulatory 636 probability (P-value) for examined variants by jointly considering cell type-specific 637

regulatory potential and cell type-free composite score. We retained significant SNPs 638 on GM12878 (P < 0.05, n = 16,868) for comparison with our prioritized SNPs under 639 at least one functional evidence (≥ 1 , n = 15,314), which had approximately equal 640 SNP counts. (3) Similarly, we selected significant SNPs (P < 0.05, n = 341) by IW-641 scoring for functional comparison with our prioritized SNPs under at least four 642 evidence (\geq 4, n = 1,791), which had the closest SNP counts. (4) The RegulomeDB 643 adopted a category based scoring system (class from 1-7, with lower rank means 644 higher functional support). We extracted SNPs ranked within class 1 (n = 1.958) or 645 within class 1-2 (n = 3,575) for functional comparison with our prioritized SNPs 646 under at least three (\geq 3, n = 3.973) or four evidence (\geq 4, n = 1.791), respectively, 647 which had the closest SNP counts. 648

649

Functional enrichment comparison. For collected functional SNPs set from each 650 methods, we firstly compared their experimentally validated SNPs count in three cell 651 types (blood mononuclear cells, K562 and HepG2) from two recent high-throughput 652 653 screen reports [26, 27]. We next compared their functionality enrichment on multiple regulatory data support using Fisher's exact test, including (1) SNPs with predicted 654 local or distal target genes by integrating cis-QTL and chromatin interaction analysis 655 on over 30 blood immune cell types (Table S4), (2) SNPs annotated with molecular 656 QTL (bQTL, hQTL, dsQTL and caQTL) on multiple blood immune cell types (Table 657 S7), (3) reported causal SNPs associated with 16 autoimmune diseases (AA, AS, ATD, 658 CEL, CRO, JIA, MS, PBC, PSC, PSO, RA, SLE, SSC, T1D, UC, VIT) prioritized by 659 the PICS approach [18], and (4) SNPs annotated with enhancer RNA (eRNA) from 660 IBD patient samples [28]. 661

662

663 Exploring immunologically related functions for predicted target genes

Pathway analysis and functional genes curation. We performed biological pathway
enrichment analysis (including Gene Ontology [GO], Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes
and Genomes [KEGG], Disease Ontology [DO] and Reactome pathway) for all
predicted gene targets using clusterProfiler R package with default parameter [70],

except that setting use internal data = TURE for KEGG enrichment analysis to 668 enable online query from latest KEGG data. To identify potential immunologically 669 related genes, we manually curated immunologically related biological pathways 670 from all annotated terms on predicted target genes. We also collected 671 immunologically related genes from other public datasets, including the International 672 Mouse Phenotyping Consortium (IMPC) portal (http://www.mousephenotype.org/, 673 release-9.2), the Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man (OMIM) database 674 (https://www.omim.org/), and the **DisGeNET** database 675 (http://www.disgenet.org/home/, v6.0, expert curated or text mining predicted genes) 676 [31]. All dataset were downloaded or queried online in May 2019. 677

678

Gene expression and tissue-specific expression analysis. We collected gene 679 expression data on 5 blood immune cell types (CD4 memory, CD4 naïve, Mobilized 680 CD34, Peripheral blood mononuclear, GM12878) from Roadmap [56] and 15 681 primary immune cells types from the DICE project (http://dice-database.org/) [69]. 682 683 Gene expression was measured by RPKM (reads per kilobase per million mapped reads). We collected the gene lists with tissue-specific expression (as based on a 684 specificity index threshold [pSI], pSI < 0.01) in 25 broad GTEx tissue types from 685 report by Wells et al. [30]. 686

687

SMR analysis. We analyzed the causal relationship between predicted target genes 688 and autoimmune diseases risk using 16 GWAS summary and 7 QTL summary data 689 (Table S1 and S4) by the summary data-based Mendelian randomization (SMR) 690 691 approach [32]. We ran SMR (v0.712) with default parameters. LD correlations between SNPs were estimated from 6,743 unrelated European samples from the 692 Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities (ARIC) data (dbGap: phs000280.v3.p1.c1) [71] 693 with one of each pair of individuals with a SNP-derived relatedness estimate of > 694 0.025 suggested by GCTA (v1.91) [72] randomly removed. Gene-disease pairs 695 passed both multi-SNP-based SMR test (FDR adjusted $P_{\text{SMR}} < 0.05$) and 696 heterogeneity test by HEIDI ($P_{\text{HEIDI}} > 0.05$) were considered to be potential causal. 697

698

699 **Regulatory TF analysis**

We performed enrichment analysis for all allele-specific binding TFs on functional 700 autoimmune SNPs by comparing annotated functional SNPs with all positive 701 autoimmune SNPs using Fisher's exact test. For each TF with significant higher 702 enrichment on autoimmune SNPs (P < 0.05, FC > 1), we assigned the predicted 703 regulatory targets of its binding SNPs as its direct regulatory target genes. The TF-704 705 gene regulatory network was visualized by Cytoscape V3.4 (http://www.cytoscape.org/). 706

707

708 Drug target and drug repurposing analysis

Curation of drug target genes. Clinically approved or experimental drug target genes 709 with known indications were obtained from 3 different databases, including the 710 DrugBank database (https://www.drugbank.ca/, v5.1.2) [73], the Therapeutic target 711 database (TTD, 2018 updated) [74] and Open Targets database [75]. All three drug 712 713 databases were queried in March 2019. For TTD dataset, we translated the UniProt 714 protein ID into corresponding gene symbol ID using UniProt online tools. All drug indications were manually classified into autoimmune diseases, immunologically 715 related diseases (allergies, infections, inflammations, rejection, immune system 716 diseases and hematologic malignancies) or other diseases. 717

718

Curation of druggable genes. We collected potentially druggable genes from either 719 DGIdb (www.dgidb.org, v3.0.2) [76], Pharos (https://pharos.nih.gov/idg/targets) [77] 720 721 or report by Finan et al. [78]. We queried DGIdb and Pharos in March 2019. The DGIdb organized druggable genome under two classes, including over 35 validated 722 or predicted drug-gene interaction types from 20 disparate sources, and 39 gene 723 categories associated with druggability. The Pharos classified all targets into 4 groups 724 by characterizing the degree to which they are not studied (labeled Tdark) or studied 725 (labeled Tbio, Tchem or Tclin). The studied targets from Pharos were retained. Any 726 gene targets with druggability evidence from at least two resources were prioritized 727

728 as potentially druggable.

729

Predicting new potential drug target genes. For all annotated drug target or 730 druggable genes, we analyzed protein-protein interaction (PPI) between these genes 731 and all other genes. PPI was queried online from the STRING database (https://string-732 db.org/) in June 2019 with only high-confident interacted pairs (interaction score > 733 0.9) retained. By leveraging both PPI and upstream autoimmune diseases regulatory 734 735 information, we can prioritize new potential drug target gene A or for particular disease B by filtering: (1) A has strong PPI (interaction score > 0.9) with any drug 736 target gene C which had known indication on autoimmune disease B, (2) Both A and 737 C are regulated by upstream functional SNPs predisposing to autoimmune disease B, 738 (3) A is either known drug target gene or predicted druggable gene. The predicted 739 genes with known indication on other disease might suggest new potential drug 740 repurposing opportunities. 741

742

743 Functional enrichment analysis

Functional enrichment for all collected immune-relevant functional datasets (IMPC, OMIM, SMR, DisGeNET, TSEA, gene expression, drug target) on predicted target genes was analyzed by comparing annotated target genes with whole genome genes in each dataset using Fisher's exact test. Functional enrichment for immune-cell associated regulatory data (motif, molecular QTL) on prioritized functional SNPs was analyzed by comparing annotated functional SNPs with all positive autoimmune SNPs using Fisher's exact test.

751

752 **Data availability**

All analysis results are free for searching online or bulk downloading at
http://fngwas.online.

Analysis pipeline scripts are available at <u>https://github.com/xjtugenetics/fnGWAS</u>.

Description of Supplemental Data 757

Supplemental Data contains 5 supplementary figures and 15 supplementary tables. 758

759

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765

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Competing interests 775

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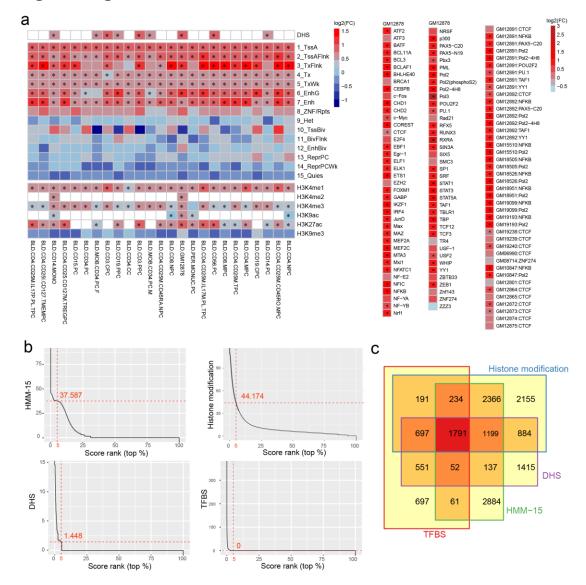
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970 **Figures Legends**



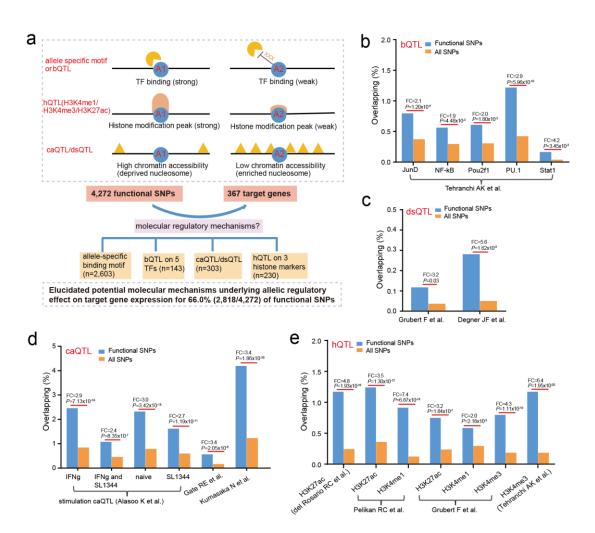
972 Figure 1. Epigenetic functional scoring for autoimmune SNPs

973 (a) Heatmap showing epigenetic feature enrichment analysis on 606 epigenetic data from 47 blood cell types across four epigenetic groups (Left: DHS, HMM-15, histone 974 modification. Right: TFBS) between all autoimmune positive SNPs and background 975 SNPs. FC: fold enrichment on each feature comparing autoimmune positive SNPs with 976 background SNPs. Red color represents feature with higher enrichment in autoimmune 977 positive SNPs ($Log_2FC > 0$). All significant and active features (Bonferroni adjusted P 978 < 0.05, FC > 1) selected for SNP scoring were marked with asterisk. Enrichment 979 analysis was performed using Fisher's exact test. (c) Ranking plot for scores of all 980 autoimmune negative SNPs within four epigenetic categories, with red dashed line 981

represents top 5% ranked value. (d) Venn diagram showing count of autoimmune SNPs
with functionality support in each of four epigenetic categories by comparing the
scoring value with top 5% ranked value of all negative autoimmune SNPs in (a). See
also Figure S1.

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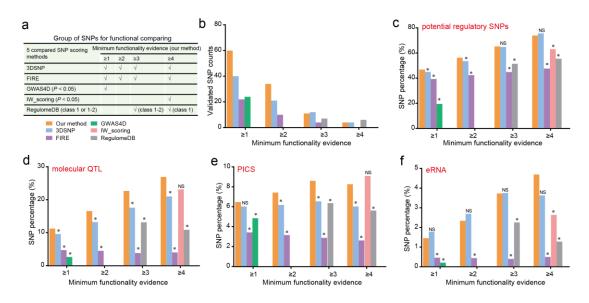
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989 Figure 2. Dissecting allelic regulatory mechanisms underlying functional SNPs

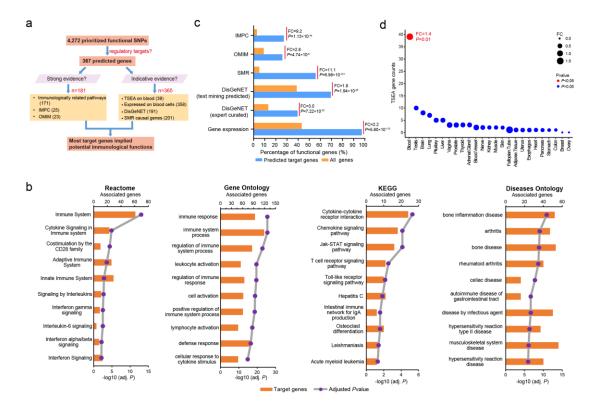
(a) Schematic showing several potential molecular-level regulatory mechanisms
underlying functional autoimmune SNPs (upper) and summary of corresponding SNP
counts (bottom). (b-e) Functional enrichment for each collected molecular QTL data on
functional SNPs compared with all positive autoimmune SNPs. Fisher's exact test was
performed in b-e, with fold enrichment and *P*-value shown.



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996 Figure 3. Comparing epigenetic functional scoring with other methods

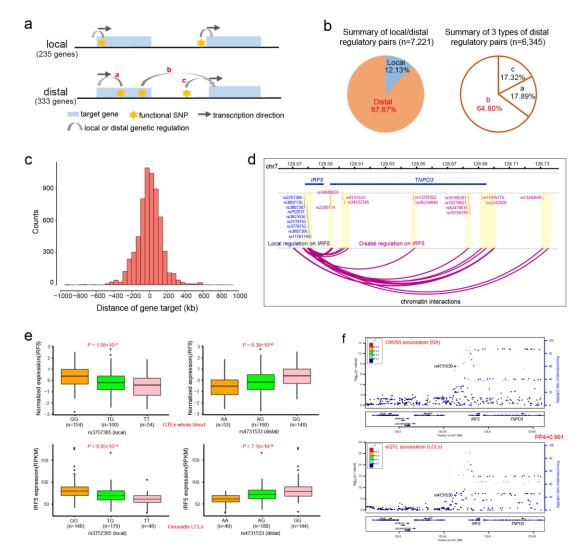
(a) Description of top-scored SNPs sets from each method for functional comparing in 997 b-f, which are marked by different colors (bottom). (b) Comparison of experimentally 998 validated functional SNPs between our method and other five methods from a high-999 throughput screen assay in mononuclear cells [26]. (c-f) Comparison of percentage of 1000 annotated SNPs within different regulatory evidence between our method and other five 1001 1002 methods, including (c) potential regulatory SNPs with predicted target gene by combining cis-QTL and chromatin interaction analysis, (d) potential functional SNPs 1003 with significant molecular QTL (bQTL, hQTL, dsQTL or caQTL) association, (e) 1004 casual autoimmune associated SNPs identified by PICS approach [18], and (f) potential 1005 1006 regulatory SNPs within eRNA detected from IBD patients [28]. Fisher's exact test was performed in c-f with asterisk represented significant higher enrichment on our method 1007 (FC > 1, P < 0.05). NS, not significant. See also Figure S2. 1008



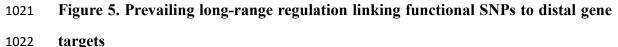


1010 Figure 4. Immunological function analysis for predicted target genes

(a) Summary of multiple immunologically related functions for predicted target genes. 1011 (b) Top 10 significant biological pathways on predicted target genes. Both P-value (line 1012 chart) and gene counts (bar chart) are shown. (c) Functional enrichment for potential 1013 immunologically related gene set with different functional evidence between predicted 1014 target genes and whole genome genes. Enrichment analysis was performed using 1015 Fisher's exact test. (d) Tissue Specific Expression Analysis (TSEA) for predicted target 1016 1017 genes on 25 diverse tissues, with dot size representing gene counts and dot color indicating significance level (P-value) using Fisher's exact test. Only one significant 1018 (P < 0.05) tissue (blood) was detected. 1019



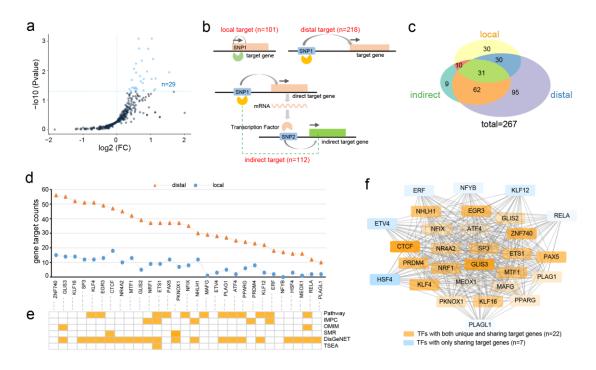
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(a) Schematic showing different regulatory models underlying prioritized functional 1023 autoimmune SNPs and gene targets. (b) Pie chart showing comparison between local 1024 and distal regulatory pairs (left), as well as between 3 types of distal regulatory pairs 1025 (right) in a. (c) Counts of SNP-gene pairs at different distance (kb). (d-f) IRF5-TNPO3 1026 region example showing that multiple functional autoimmune SNPs located within 1027 other gene regulated distal target gene expression via long-range chromatin interactions. 1028 1029 The regulatory evidence including both (d) chromatin interactions, (e) cis-QTL association (one local example SNP and another distal example SNP were shown) and 1030 (f) colocalization between GWAS association on RA and IRF5 cis-eQTL association in 1031

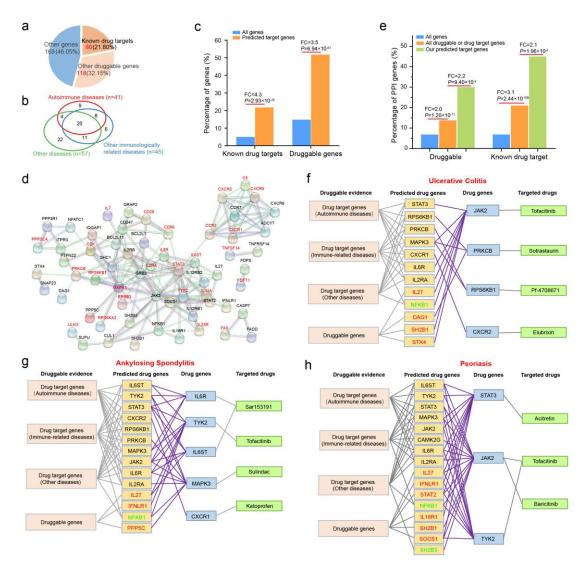
1032 LCLs. Genomic annotation and chromatin interaction at IRF5 locus were visualized





1035

Figure 6. Identifying key TFs mediating autoimmune genetic regulatory network 1036 1037 (a) Scatter plot showing fold enrichment (FC) and significance level for enrichment in 366 predicted motif TFs between prioritized functional SNPs and all autoimmune SNPs. 1038 Nominally significantly higher enriched TFs (FC > 1, P < 0.05) are marked in blue. (b) 1039 Schematic showing three TF-target gene regulatory models. The gray arrow indicates 1040 1041 SNP-target gene interaction. (c) Venn diagram showing counts of three types of target genes on significant TFs in (b). (d) Comparison between distal and local target genes 1042 on significant TFs. (e) Annotated immunological functions on significant TFs. (f) 1043 1044 Pervasive sharing of regulatory target genes between different significant TFs. The orange rectangle represented 22 TFs shared all target genes with the rest (blue) of TFs, 1045 which might indicate their central regulatory roles. The transparency indicated counts 1046 of regulatory target genes, with CTCF mediated the most target genes (n = 113). 1047



1048

Figure 7. Predicted new drug targets with potential repurposing opportunities for three autoimmune diseases

1051 (a) Pie chart showing gene count and percentage among predicted target genes for either known drug targets with indications or predicted druggable genes or others. (b) Venn 1052 diagram showing sharing counts of drug target genes with indications on either 1053 autoimmune diseases, other immunologically related diseases or other diseases (Table 1054 S12 for detail). (c) Functional enrichment analysis for either known drug target or 1055 predicted druggable genes on our predicted target genes compared with all genome 1056 genes using Fisher's exact test. (d) PPI (score > 0.9) between autoimmune-drug target 1057 genes (marked in red) and other drug target or druggable genes. PPI plot was from 1058 1059 STRING database by querying online. (e) Functional enrichment analysis showing percentage of genes showing strong PPI (score > 0.9) with autoimmune-drug target 1060

genes on either predicted druggable genes or known drug target genes. The comparison 1061 was performed between our predicted target genes (marked in green) and all druggable 1062 or drug target genes (marked in orange), as well as between all druggable genes or drug 1063 1064 targets and all genome genes (marked in blue) using Fisher's exact test, respectively. (f-h) Predicted new candidate drug targets on three autoimmune diseases. The orange 1065 rectangle shows predicted new drug genes, with genes with known indications on other 1066 autoimmune or non-autoimmune diseases marked in black or green and genes without 1067 1068 known drug target indications marked in red. See also Figure S3 and S4.

1069 Supplementary Figures Legends

1070 Figure S1. Workflow of epigenetic functional scoring

The top panel shows definition for positive, background and negative autoimmune 1071 SNPs for the following epigenetic functional scoring. Any coding, spicing or MHC 1072 region SNPs were removed. The middle panel shows the process for functional scoring. 1073 1074 FC: fold enrichment. Epigenetic data in 47 blood immune cell types across four epigenetic categories (HMM-15, histone modification, DHS, TFBS) are used for 1075 enrichment analysis using Fisher's exact test. M1-M4 denotes annotated or unannotated 1076 positive/background SNPs count on each epigenetic feature. A1-A4 denotes four 1077 epigenetic categories with m1-m4 significant enriched features for scoring. The bottom 1078 panel shows how to determine functionality support for each positive SNP. Each SNP 1079 had four scores (n1-n4) across four epigenetic groups, which were further compared 1080 with 5% top ranked score value of all negative SNPs (S1-S4) to determine its 1081 1082 functionality support. Relative to Figure 1.

1083

Figure S2. Comparing epigenetic functional scoring with other methods using experimentally validated regulatory SNPs

1086 Comparison of experimentally validated functional SNPs between our epigenetic
1087 functional scoring and other five methods from high-throughput screen assay in HepG2
1088 (a) and K562 (b) cells [27]. Relative to Figure 3.

1089

1090 Figure S3. Prevailing sharing of genetic disease-association and biological 1091 pathways on drug target genes

(a-b) Count of (a) autoimmune drug target genes or (b) other drug target and predicted
druggable genes associated with paired autoimmune diseases, with genes associated
with individual disease shown in diagonal line. Disease association on gene targets are
derived from their upstream functional SNPs. (c) Counts of shared immunological
related pathways between 41 known autoimmune-drug target genes (row) and all 198
drug target or druggable genes (column). Pathways were manually curated from all

annotated biological terms (GO, KEGG, DO, Reactome) on predicted target genes(Table S9). Relative to Figure 7.

1100

1101 Figure S4. Predicted new potential drug targets for four autoimmune diseases

The yellow rectangle shows predicted new drug genes for four autoimmune diseases
which had strong PPI with known drug target genes (blue). All predicted drug genes
had known indications on other autoimmune diseases or non-autoimmune diseases.
Relative to Figure 7.

1106

1107 Figure S5. Flowchart of fnGWAS pipeline

The blue rectangle summarized five main analysis steps of fnGWAS pipeline, with aim 1108 1109 for each step shown (Step 1-5). For each analysis step, the input data (represented by cylinder) and simplified example summarized output result (represented by yellow 1110 table) are shown, respectively. By default, fnGWAS begins with an epigenetic 1111 functional scoring pipeline (Step1) using all susceptible SNPs associated with any 1112 1113 interested diseases/traits as input, which outputs functional scores and functionality support for all positive SNPs (see detailed workflow for step 1 in Figure S1). Target 1114 gene prediction were then employed for all positive SNPs with functionality support 1115 (Step 2). Downstream functional analysis were then performed predicted target genes 1116 and their regulatory functional SNPs (Step 3-5). Alternatively, each step of fnGWAS 1117 can be run independently, which support any user-defined input data. The whole 1118 annotation 1119 pipeline including input data are free available at https://github.com/xjtugenetics/fnGWAS or http://fngwas.online/download.php. 1120

Supplementary Tables 1122

- Table S1. Summary of datasets for autoimmune SNPs collection 1123
- Table S2. Significantly enriched active epigenetic features selected for epigenetic 1124
- 1125 functional scoring
- Table S3. Epigenetic functional scores on all positive autoimmune SNPs 1126
- Table S4. Summary of cis-QTLs and chromatin interactions datasets for target gene 1127
- 1128 prediction
- Table S5. Predicted regulatory target genes on prioritized potential functional SNPs 1129
- Table S6. Colocalization between GWAS and cis-QTL association for predicted target 1130
- 1131 genes
- Table S7. Summary of intermediate molecular QTL datasets
 1132
- Table S8. Potential molecular regulatory mechanisms underlying functional 1133 1134
- autoimmune SNPs
- Table S9. Summary of immunologically related functions for target genes
 1135
- 1136 Table S10. Potential causal autoimmune target genes identified by SMR
- Table S11. Regulatory target genes and immunologically related functions for 1137
- significantly enriched TFs 1138
- Table S12. known drug target genes with clinical indications 1139
- Table S13. Prioritized candidate druggable genes
 1140
- Table S14. Predicted new potential drug target or drug repurposing genes on 1141
- autoimmune diseases 1142
- Table S15. Comparison between fnGWAS and other representative scoring approaches 1143